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ABSTRACT

This study examines the status of school-community relations, explores suggestions for the implementation of change, and discusses possible future school-community relationships. Study conclusions reveal that (1) most school administrators are unwilling to implement functional school-community relations programs; (2) minority groups and Federal programs have been catalysts in the movement toward school-community relations; (3) community advisory councils, community schools, and community aides have proved to be effective in creating stronger ties between schools and communities; and (4) that available evidence was inconclusive as to the impact of school-community relations programs on future education. An annotated bibliography is included. (JF)

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[MEETING THE EDUCATIONAL NEEDS OF THE COMMUNITY: TRENDS IN SCHOOL-COMMUNITY INTERACTION.]
by George T. Frey

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CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM AND METHOD OF INVESTIGATION

For many years American educators have been reluctant to extend meaningful school-community relations into the neighborhoods they serve or to initiate school-community oriented activities. Maintaining the status quo has been the trend. Educators functioning in leadership roles have been content to satisfy their immediate superiors and a few select power groups that are extremely influential in the community. Because of this type of political maneuvering, educators have failed to meet the unique needs of certain American sub-groups and the needs of communities which have changed socially and economically because of their transient character and/or the thrust of technological advances.

The failure, to meet the educational needs of communities, has helped to bring national focus on school systems and there is now a plea for more relevant education which, minorities, interested educators and some researchers say, can come only with a change in the now static school-community relations. There seems to be a need for the schools to complement social change and there is great resistance, by educators, to change the present status of school-community relations. The resistance to change has brought the present question to mind: "If there is a need for change in school-community relations, how can it best be implemented with a minimum of disruption of the educational process?"

The present status of school-community relations in the United States has been evolutionary in nature--dating back to the early sixteen-hundreds. Schools, at that time, were truly community-oriented and served their purpose well. The dame school is one example. To complement schools, there was heavy reliance on family, church, and shop as primary agencies of socialization. Girls learned the arts of the home and boys learned the skills of the field. Unlike the dame school, schools in urban districts are caught up in both the mass immigration of rural people and the advancement of new technologies. Because of the demand on schools, they have become lace-edged bureaucracies which seem to exist for something other than the community.

I. THE PROBLEM

Statement of the purpose. It was the purpose of this study, through a review of selected literature, 1) to determine the status of school-community relations; 2) to explore suggestions for the implementation of change; and 3) to discuss possible future relationships between schools and community.

Importance of the study. The importance of this study was established by the reluctance of educational institutions to include the community in their many activities. Hopefully, the information presented will have the impact needed to make educators critically assess the possibilities and ramifications of the school-community relations concept. Educators may then be better able to evaluate

the kinds of programs and activities which will meet the needs of their particular communities and the problems which they may encounter when attempting implementation. Not only may educators better be able to evaluate programs but if a decision is made to implement, then suggested ways of inducing change may be reviewed with implications for the future. This study may well serve as a guide for the traditional as well as the more contemporary school man.

II. DEFINITIONS OF TERMS USED

Diffusion sets. George Beal and Daryl Hobbs define diffusion sets as people who disseminate the basic ideas of a program to various target groups and audiences (Social Action, 1969, p. 6).

Encounter group. Carl Rogers (Educational Leadership, May 1967, p. 718) defined this group as a workshop group usually consisting of from ten to fifteen persons and a facilitator or leader. The group is relatively unstructured, providing a climate of maximum freedom for personal expression, exploration of feelings, and interpersonal communication. Individuals come to know themselves and each other more fully than is possible in the usual social or working relationships. The aims of these groups are to improve learning abilities of the participants in such areas as leadership and interpersonal communication, and to bring about change in the organizational climates and structures in which the members work.

Initiating sets. George Beal and Daryl Hobbs define initiating sets as a group of persons who are centrally interested in consulting with key leaders of relevant social systems (Social Action, 1969, p. 4).

School-community relations. Gene Fusco defines school-community relations as being 1) activities which will raise the level of public understanding through information programs; and 2) activities which will enlist community support by drawing citizens into meaningful participation in school affairs (Improving Your School-Community Relations Program, 1967).

III. METHODS OF RESEARCH

Most of the literature used in this report was located at both San Diego State College and the San Diego City Schools' Education Center. Other important references were found by writing to the Department of Health, Education and Welfare, and by using the private library of Dr. Joseph Doohan. Dr. Doohan is an evaluation specialist for the San Diego City Schools' Compensatory Education Program. Valuable as a starting point was the Education Index. However, a better source of data was found in the curriculum section of the education library and the public administration division of the State College library. Another important source of information in the area of experimental research was Research in Education (ERIC).

A great deal of the literature covered was descriptive, in

that, local school programs which were thought to be good (not based on experimental research) were discussed. While analyzing these kinds of materials, careful notice was taken to see if success stories had been reported throughout the Nation relative to the same type of school-community relations programs. If so, perhaps a comparison could have been made from which sound conclusions could be drawn.

The paper attempted to include opinion polls but found that most of the opinions came from local school administrators--superintendents and principals. Little was found in the way of public opinion. The validity of such data is difficult to assess. Although no quantitative data was given, perhaps the most informative and objective information was provided in research by the Department of Health, Education and Welfare. Data provided by the Department was collected by specialists, reviewed, and published.

A heavy reliance was placed on opinionated information provided by authorities from throughout the country. Many of these authorities were school superintendents.

IV. ORGANIZATION OF THE REMAINDER OF THIS PAPER

Chapter II is a review of selected literature pertaining to school-community relations and its limitations which were outlined in Chapter I. Chapter II also contained pertinent descriptive information with very little conflicting research. Conclusions relative to school-community relations were summarized at the close of Chapter II. An annotated bibliography completed this paper.

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CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

This chapter analyzed selected literature to determine the status of school-community relations programs. Two levels of school-community relations were considered, centralized and decentralized. Emphasis was placed on the latter. Centralized school-community relations was referred to as that which emanated from the education center while decentralized school-community relations emanated from the local school site. Both areas were discussed because of the interrelationships which exist when functional programs are established.

Literature with the following information regarding school-community relations were reviewed and evaluated: (1) status of school-community relations programs throughout the country, (2) suggested ideas for the implementation of change from static to functional school-community relations programs, and (3) future implications for educators of change towards more meaningful school-community relations.

I. STATUS OF SCHOOL-COMMUNITY RELATIONS

Maintaining the status quo. Research indicates that educators are proceeding in two different directions relative to the establishment of functional school-community relations. A few educators are willing to respond, while the majority are unwilling

to respond to the needs of their community. Thus, the focus of the school-community relations perspective at this time is no better than it was a decade ago.

The present societal demands in education are communicated in a language which is new to schoolmen. The language demands change and is expressed euphemistically by Moffitt:

> In school public relations, administrators still rely on pedigob and pedigobble in an age where the vocabulary has gone teeny bopping. They insist on dignity of appearance in an era of mini skirts and bowlegged revelations. They put their trust in psalmody and hymnody when such sweet melodies have been swept away by jazz and bebop. They think in terms of reason in an age of unreason. They seek reality in an era which is unrealistic. This is not an indictment of such a dignified old-fashioned concept. The only trouble is that it doesn't work anymore (Nation's Schools, 1967, p. 40).

The above passage expresses well how schoolmen protect the status quo, by adhering to traditional participation in school-community relations. Schoolmen throughout the Nation have been content not to move. Programs to inform the public and to hear the public, as well as competent administrators to coordinate the programs, have gone lacking.

The National Education Association (NEA Research Bulletin, 1968) researched practices of school districts in providing a public relations adviser for centralized school-community relations. The research revealed that a nationwide lag exists. It was shown that only 60.1% of a sample of 198 school districts have advisers (p. 29). It was further disclosed that only one-third of the school districts having advisers have written qualifications for the position. Twenty-two per cent of the systems surveyed reported that no person

is solely responsible for public relations or that duties are delegated by the superintendent as the need arises.

The above findings demonstrated the ineffectiveness of public relations or community relations throughout the school structure--from the board level to the principal level. A lag in centralized school-community relations surely indicates that there will be a lag in decentralized school-community relations. As suggested by Levine (1966), if boards of education and superintendents are not willing to support the efforts of principals, then principals will probably not move on certain programs affected by district policy.

In its evaluation of the district's total program, the board might wisely employ competent, impartial advisers to assess the community relations status of the system. As a unit the school board has a major responsibility to its district, to keep all citizens informed not only of the achievements or otherwise praiseworthy facts about the school program but also about its needs and its weaknesses. However true this may be, Rice (Nation's Schools, 1967, p. 13) warns that such action may narrow the members' chance of being re-elected. Rice also stressed that if the public relations adviser worked under the superintendent, as is traditionally the case--and as is affirmed by the National Education Association--he may be obligated to build up the superintendent and to make the whole school program look good.

Nussell, in a paper to the American Research Association (1969), reported on testing a restructured version of the Simmelian

theory of conflict. The theory holds that conflict can result in conciliation, cooperation, and other benefits. He interviewed fourteen leaders of metropolitan community groups who had been active in five separate conflict situations with the local board of education. The leaders represented 2,000 families. The objective of the study was to understand the resultant attitudes of these people in an attempt to ascertain whether or not the experience was beneficial to them. The principal negative responses relative to the board of education and superintendent (frequency in parenthesis) are as follows:

> Intergroup cleavage (9)--"Group 'X' is a 'rubber stamp' of the board of education. They failed to cooperate with our cause."
>
> Non-negotiability of board (8)--"The board will do as it pleases."
>
> Personal animosity (7)--"The superintendent is a professional buck passer."
>
> Competency questions (4)--"The board of education and their staff do not do their jobs correctly." (ERIC, 1969, p. 8)

Some of the implications are that boards of education have rubber stamp groups, do as they please, and delegate too much responsibility. Both "competency of the board" and "non-negotiability of the board" responses suggest that the board will do as it pleases.

Along with this status quo keeping at the upper levels of school administration, Levine (1966) points to the problems of community relations at the local school site. He emphasized that it is natural for a principal to seek the good opinion of those for whom he works--promotion and stability of position depend on

favorable evaluation. Dyer (1958) and Frey (1970) also argued that the principal will determine whether progress in functional school-community relations is achieved or arrested.

If the "do-nothing" approach to school-community relations is to be overcome, then it seems that the will of the community must be effective in guiding local participation in the support and control of their schools. However, such will, as is expressed, must be informed in order to be as effective as possible. It is questionable that the public will ever be informed, since it is up to the professional to advise the lay public about the educational needs of their children and their schools.

Attacks on the status quo. Assuming that the aim is to break the status quo or assuming that school-community relations will not be selling some fixed idea, but rather seeking to arrive at a school-community consensus that will yield a quality of education appropriate to the specific community, then the community relations program should focus on the following as outlined in The Schools and the Community:

1) Operation as a two-way medium through which effective communication is maintained from school to community and community to school.
2) Active participation of a broad segment of school personnel in planning and executing the public relations activity.
3) Development of means whereby community agencies and activities may be coordinated effectively with the program.
4) Progressive development of policies whereby efficiency of operation is achieved through a methodical approach, clear-cut delegation of authority, measures for evaluation, and built-in flexibility (ERIC, 1966, p. 11).

During the past decade, much has been done to bring school-community relations into the above focus. Education-oriented proposals by minority groups and subsequent passage of federal legislation relative to education have been the primary catalysts. Minorities pressured school districts from a community front and where they are part of the establishment, have pressured districts from within. Honn reports that in some sections of the country, as in Los Angeles, California, Negro school administrators have formed councils with one of their prime objectives, "to interpret to the broader community the needs and desires of the Black community as they relate to educational matters (Journal of Secondary Education, 1969, p. 96)." Levine further avows that help has come from many students, teachers, and administrators, in the majority community, who feel trapped in a system which punishes vigorous effort to improve the quality of education and rewards acceptance of the status quo (Elementary School Journal, 1966, p. 322).

Concurrent with the above progress, a strong impact has been made by Title I, of the Elementary-Secondary Education Act. Major cities across the Nation, such as Chicago, Philadelphia, Detroit, New York, Los Angeles, San Diego, New Orleans, Cleveland, St. Louis, Cincinnati, and Minneapolis, have been involved in Title I community involvement programs, as have many of the smaller cities. Mauch stressed that, "Although designed primarily to benefit disadvantaged children, Title I has seriously challenged traditional educational practices and introduced many new techniques that

promise to benefit middle- and upper-class children as well (Phi Delta Kappan, 1966, p. 270)."

Perhaps one of the most persuasive catalysts to change towards more meaningful school-community relations was a study done for the Department of Health, Education and Welfare (Chilman, Hoffman, Lauderbaugh, Lieberman, Rogers, Ruthig, Schultz, Smith & Wolf, 1968). Out of the study came a strong recommendation for the inclusion of parents in school programs:

> It is recommended that the Department of Health, Education and Welfare sponsor and promote increased participation of fathers and mothers in all programs that serve children and youth and/or the parents themselves, and which receive Federal aid from this Department. Such participation includes (a) membership of parents on advisory committees, (b) opportunities for parents to serve as volunteers and employees, (c) a family-centered focus and maximum coordination of services in health, education, and welfare programs designed to serve children and youth (Chilman, et al., 1968, p. 1).

Since the recommendations, changes have been made in existing Title I programs and new programs have been legislated. One of the primary results has been to strengthen the parent participation component. The Urban Coalition (One Year Later, 1969) agreed that community participation in school programs should be broadened--that functional school-community relations could do much to enhance efforts towards academic excellence.

Some school-community relations practices. Many innovative practices in school-community relations have been tried in both urban and suburban areas. Some successful practices have been (1) the use of community advisory councils (committees), (2) the

establishment of community schools, and (3) the use of community aides, According to the literature, most have been successful by degree or to the extent that schoolmen would make them functional.

Advisory committees have been used in such undertakings as (1) school district consolidation and reorganization, (2) studies relative to the financial needs of school districts, (3) keeping the district informed about community concerns, (4) making recommendations concerning expenditure of district and federal funds, and (5) curriculum development.

A Workshop for Educational Administration (Basic Considerations in Consolidation and Reorganization of Ohio School Districts, 1957) was held at Ohio State University in August of 1957. Superintendents from the major districts throughout the State were present. They asserted that progress in district reorganization is more rapid and is accomplished with a minimum of conflict when people who are affected by the change have an opportunity to participate in the study of, and the planning for, a new district. Ronald Campbell (1956) and the Association of School Administrators (School District Organization, 1958), on district reorganization, concur with the Ohio group.

Campbell points to some factors, when using advisory committees, which may hinder school reorganization.

1. Personal feelings, opinions and influence of friends and neighbors.
2. Acceptance or rejection of what the proposed changes in school boundaries and arrangements will mean to the life or future of the neighborhood or the community concerned.
3. Cooperation or rivalries between neighborhood or community.

4. Advantage or disadvantage of expanded subject matter offerings for students.
5. Expense or economy in the school program.
6. Advantages or disadvantages of information and facts presented by professional schoolmen from county and state levels.
7. Advantages or disadvantages of expanded school plant facilities.
8. Advantages or disadvantages of expanded services to pupils (Nation's Schools, 1956, p. 58).

If Campbell's assertions are correct, then it would seem practicable to include the community from the beginning of a project, making sure that they are well-versed in what is to take place. At least the community would be informed, whether they agree with change or not, and would, therefore, more quickly adjust to the new conditions. Nussel supports this statement in his suggested restructuring of the Simmelian theory, to read, "Although the demands of a parental pressure group cannot be resolved, the mere fact that the group has met with school officials reveals that a unity has been established, even though the group fails to succeed in its drive and later disbands (ERIC, 1969, p. 9)."

The American Association of School Administrators (1958) and the Workshop for Educational Administration (1957) built well the case for inclusion of the community into the planning for district reorganization but warned of problems which could occur when using advisory committees. Both groups emphasized that the committees' relationship to the board should be established in advance of their participation. The board retains the right to reject all or part of a program recommended by the group. Participants in the workshop also suggested that the group be disbanded as soon as assigned tasks

are completed. Chase concurs with the Association and the Workshop but further stipulates that "the greatest risk factor in the use of citizens' committees is the chance that under the democratic system of selecting its members there might be appointed too many persons with closed minds (Nation's Schools, 1956, p. 60)." Using the democratic system for selecting advisory committee members, in a small community, can often lead to the nomination of domineering persons. These types (domineering) can cause problems within the committee, such as power struggles and rivalries. Such antagonism can do much to block efforts toward realization of established objectives.

After working with community groups for more than two years, the writer does not agree entirely that community groups should be disbanded as soon as an assignment is completed. Continued liaison with certain members who are in positions of power may be an asset to the school. This idea is borne out by the community involvement component of the Elementary-Secondary Education Act (Handbook for California School District Advisory Committees, 1965). The Handbook suggests that advisory committee members be rotated yearly and bi-yearly and that a quota of old members be voted to stay as incumbents from year to year so that the pursuit of long-range goals is not hindered (Handbook for California School District Advisory Committees, 1965, p. 4). To emphasize this point, the tasks of Title I committees are as varied and involved as those relating to district reorganization. Some of the tasks are:

1. Developing programs in cooperation with existing community action programs in the locality.
2. Bringing together community resources to attack the problems of target area children, including assistance in locating appropriate sources of aid.
3. Overall planning, development, implementation and dissemination of information relative to the objectives of the compensatory programs.
4. Acting as a sounding board for any individual or group to suggest additions to or changes in the school district's proposed compensatory education program (Handbook for California School District Advisory Committees, 1965, pp. 5, 6).

Another school-community relations program which has skyrocketed during the past five years has been the Extended Day Center (community school concept). The main objectives of the concept are to provide for community members, parents, and students, those activities in which the entire family can participate and to make full use of the school plant by extending activities into the afternoon and evening. Enrichment classes such as graphic arts, sewing, modeling and charm, and recreation are but a few of the activities offered.

Colum made a survey of the 60 largest school districts in the Nation to determine the status of Extended Day Centers (Master's Thesis, 1969, p. 16). Forty-eight of the districts responded. Twenty-four of the forty-eight reporting had Centers, most of which were established at elementary schools. All reported good participation. Colum's study does not reveal how widely distributed Extended Day Centers are. For example, in his sample, Detroit was the only city in Michigan surveyed. Auld (Michigan Education Journal, 1966, pp. 24, 25) reported on community school developments

in twenty-five Michigan communities where both educational and recreational activities were taking place after school. The same trend could be taking place in other states where Colum sampled only one city.

Potter (1968) reported on "The Iron Mountain-Breitung Township Community" and specified what could become a major objective for all communities with Extended Day Centers:

> There are many things other than just the education that come out of such a program. The economy of the community is affected, too. For instance, for just one activity that we started, sewing classes, it was estimated that the first semester alone there were over $2,000 worth of materials purchased for the sewing classes. Two thousand dollars--thinking in terms of what this means as far as the local stores and considering the whole program--produces an idea of what it can do for a community. The sewing machine salesman told me that his sales tripled during the first year that the Program was offered. We have since had five hundred new people taking sewing classes, so presumably the economic effect upon the community has continued (The Community School Concept, 1968, p. 15).

Here it can be seen that extended day programs can become forces to establish a marriage between the school and community.

Parents, referred to as "community aides," from the immediate school area, are hired on a part-time basis throughout the country. They have proven to be a great asset to school-community relations programs. Aides serve as supervisors both on field trips and in critical areas on the school campus; they perform clerical tasks and work on switchboards; and they tutor students and help with small group instruction. In programs such as extended day classes, Frey reported that, if aides have special talents, they may be found instructing project groups (Bulletin of the National

Association of Secondary School Principals, 1970, p. 33).

A most rewarding utilization of community aides was reported by Gartner (1969). His report indicated that there is a direct relationship between the success of students and parent participation. In a New York City program (Supplementary Teaching Assistance in Reading), students who were identified as likely reading failures were trained by their parents. They scored higher in nine different reading tests than did matched children who received two hours of remedial training per week from professionals, or as a control group (Gartner, 1969), p. 18). Gartner also reported that a study, conducted for the U. S. Office of Education, of all compensatory education programs for the disadvantaged, reported on between 1963 and 1968, found that of the 1,000 programs examined, only twenty-three were found to have yielded "measured educational benefits of cognitive achievement." Of these twenty-three, ten involved the use of paraprofessionals (p. 15).

Since the above study was completed two years have elapsed. During the interim there has been a surge to use community aides in district and federally funded programs. The largest piece of legislation by the Nixon administration, regarding education, was passed in 1969. Under the Education Professions Development Act (Public Law 90-35), a Career Opportunities Program (1969) was established. The purpose of the program is to attract community people to careers in education. San Diego, along with many other cities having Model Cities projects, has been funded for the

program. The potential of using community aides is so great that colleges have formed linkages with the Career Opportunities Program and are setting up special curricula for community aides, and the States are easing credentialing requirements to advance community aide paraprofessionals into teacher education.

Community aides have also been used successfully as community liaison personnel, with the purpose of communicating school information to the public. Hicks (ERIC, 1967) reported on An Experiment in School-Community Relations. The author tested hypotheses relative to community aides used for community liaison. The tested hypotheses were:

Hyp. I. School community aides, when properly trained, will establish good rapport with professional educators.

Hyp. II. Aides will increase disadvantaged parents' knowledge about the school's Title I programs by providing additional information in the form of written communications and oral explanations.

Hyp. III. Persons from the disadvantaged community will exhibit more positive attitudes toward the school as a result of personal contact made by aides.

Hyp. IV. Persons from the disadvantaged community will seek to maintain and continue contact with the school through school community aides.

Hyp. V. Aides will have an increased knowledge about the school's Title I program as a result of their experiences.

Hyp. VI. Aides will exhibit more positive attitudes toward the school as a result of their experiences (Hicks, 1967, p. 5).

Pre and post tests administered to community aides and to persons from the disadvantaged community were evaluated with "t-tests."

Hypotheses III and VI were rejected; all others were accepted. Hicks concluded that the rejection of hypothesis III was probably because of ego involvement on the part of disadvantaged persons and that the rejection of hypothesis VI was probably because the aides already had a high opinion of the school. Mauch (1969) also suggested that aides who work at school often change their attitudes.

Summary. There does seem to be a dichotomous trend on the part of educators to become involved in functional school-community relations. Many are contented to rely on the traditional methods of involving community while others are willing to forge ahead and innovate. Restlessness on the part of students and community people, who are asking schoolmen for relevancy and for programs based on differentiated needs, has been a catalyst for change towards functional school-community relations. Federal programs such as the Elementary-Secondary Education Act and the Education Professions Development Act have given strong political support to communities in their quests for educational involvement.

Studies by individuals such as Hicks and Gartner, and by the Department of Health, Education and Welfare clearly disclosed that parent participation can be beneficial to both the schools and the community. These success stories have implications for improvement in suburbia as well as the inner city. Descriptive information about success stories with community advisory committees and extended day programs also support the findings of more objective data favoring community involvement.

II. SUGGESTED IDEAS FOR THE IMPLEMENTATION OF CHANGE

School-community relations will exist whether it is planned or not. Because community involvement is now being forced throughout the Nation, seemingly, schoolmen would develop plans for its implementation. Plans could be developed for directed change at both the site level and/or the district level. At the right time, depending upon the need of the community, these plans could be put into action. Certainly, there would be a minimum of disruption in school activities if a plan for program development is available. The ability to meet the call for change in community involvement and the foresight and wisdom to adjust to its impact are qualities that school people must seek, above all else, if schools are to survive as effective instruments in a free society.

Two possibilities show promise as change mechanisms: (1) following a systematic social construct and (2) teacher education. These possibilities could be used singly or in combination. Teacher education, for example, could be used alone or could be a supporter if the other alternative is employed. These ideas will be explored individually.

A social construct for change. Beal and Hobbs (1969) published a paper demonstrating how a social action construct relative to community and area development, could be used in initiating and finally implementing a school-community relations program. Kimbrough (1966) does not use such a construct or scheme

but does concur, in general terms, with many of the steps suggested by Beal and Hobbs. Suggested steps are (Social Action, 1969, pp. 2-13):

1. Analysis of the Existing Social System
2. Convergence of Interest
3. Analysis of the Prior Social Situation
4. Delineation of Relevant Social Systems
5. Initiating Sets
6. Legitimation
7. Diffusion Sets
8. Definition of Need by More General Relevant Groups and Organizations
9. Decisions (Commitment) to Action by Relevant Systems
10. Formulation of Objectives
11. Decision on Means To Be Used.
12. Plan of Work
13. Mobilizing Resources
14. Action Steps
15. Evaluation

This plan may be relevant to a program in part or in whole. The sequence, as listed, was not to suggest that the steps must be followed in the exact order for a project to be successful. However, the process presented (Beal and Hobbs, 1969) has been tested and researched and, in most cases, will probably best be applied in the order presented.

In general, steps 1, 3, 4, 6, 8, 9, and 11 would be patterns of involvement of groups inside and outside of the social system being considered. In the case of establishing a school-community relations program, these groups may well be the board of education, central office administrators, site administrators, certificated staff, classified staff, students, parents, Parent Teacher Association, and other community-based groups, some of which have and some of which do not have, a relationship with the school.

Involvement through these steps would cause the groups considered to become more and more committed. Respectively, steps 2, 5, and 7 are similar in that they would include recognition of the initial idea, the problem that it presents, and the dissemination of information. From the onset of the program objectives have been in mind, but to keep from alienating relevant groups it may be best to keep objectives rather general (Beal, et al., 1969, p. 12). Although listed as the last step, evaluation is taking place as each step is completed.

In 63 Tested Practices in School-Community Relations (Bernard Campbell, 1954), the use of community polls is stressed as determiners to assess what relationships will exist between the school and community. There is agreement (Beal, et al., 1969; Campbell, 1954) that to make the system go, surveys should be timed to avoid disturbed periods in the community. Campbell further warned that the size of the sample is of less importance than the accuracy of the stratification (p. 9). Consideration must be given to sex, geographic distribution, age, parents and non-parents, and economic status.

Primarily, the success of the social construct seems to hinge on the legitimation step. Legitimation was used mainly in the sense of giving sanction for action. This step brought to mind two questions. "Is this an individual (or organization) who, if opposed to our particular plan, would make it quite difficult to succeed because of the weight of his opinions with other members of

the social system?" or "If this individual (or organization) gives his sanction to our proposal, will it greatly enhance the likelihood of its (the project's) success?" If the right persons are not contacted or if the legitimation step is not carried out successfully, then the probability of progress of a proposed program could be seriously affected (Beal, et. al., 1969, p. 5).

There are persons and groups in the educational social system to consider for legitimation. It would seem that in the case of a decentralized school-community relations program, the receptivity by the site administrator would be critical (Frey, 1970, p. 31) while in the case of centralized school-community relations, receptivity by the board and the superintendent would be critical (American Association of School Administrators, 1958, p. 118; Rice, 1967, p. 15).

Another crucial step in initiating the program is the "diffusion set." Making sure that information is disseminated effectively could be accomplished by a community relations advisor within the system (Community Relations, 1969, p. 4), dispatching community aides into the local area (Hicks, 1967), and by making use of available news media (Campbell, 1954, p. 24).

Teacher education. When a new program or activity is introduced in any school system, teacher education is employed to some degree. The implementation of a school-community relations program may require extensive teacher education, if the program is to be successful. Many ways of educating the teacher about

community involvement have been suggested. Pre-school orientation and in-service training, formal college classes, and sensitivity training were the most suggested practices.

For pre-school orientation, Barton and Spreng (1953) suggested that a guide book of the community, tours of the community, and briefing of the District's philosophy or attitude towards the community should be considered in educating teachers (p. 18). Community-based conferences, where educators meet with parents in homes or in community centers, are advocated by Kinney (1953) and by the San Diego Unified School District (Community Relations, 1969, p. 12). In San Diego, the community-based conference is a common practice of four schools with Title I programs and two schools without Title I programs. Not only do the San Diego schools use community-based conferences in their pre-school orientation, they also use the instrument for year long in-service teacher training.

To help teachers with parent conferences, Barton and Spreng (1953) propose faculty meetings devoted to a better understanding of community relations. They also propose a tool, by way of sociodramas, which has become quite controversial to schoolmen--sensitivity training. However, Rogers (1967) strongly agrees with this method. He advocated that this tool could result in the kind of educational revolution which is needed to bring about confidence in the process of learning and the process of change. He warns that "the new tool cannot be used in the most effective manner unless the whole system is moving towards changingness (Educational Leadership,

1967, p. 718)."

Colleges and universities could do much to emphasize community dynamics in basic education course work. These institutions could also emphasize community involvement in graduate division courses. Addicott (1953) outlined some of the possible college curriculum offerings which he feels should emphasize home-school-community relations (Bulletin of the California State Department of Education, 1953, pp. 14-15):

a) Introduction to Teaching
b) Educational Psychology (Growth and Development)
c) Social Foundations of Education (Educational Sociology)
d) Extra Instructional Activities of the Teacher (The Teacher and School Organization)
e) Observation and Participation (Pre-Cadet)
f) Directed Teaching

Kinney (1953) also outlined possible curriculum offerings which she feels should emphasize community relations (Bulletin of the California State Department of Education, 1953, pp. 9-10):

a) Foundations of Education
b) Social Foundations of Education
c) Educational Sociology
d) Community Study through Seminars
e) The requirement that student teachers participate in school-community relations sponsored by the schools assigned.

Two of Kinney's suggested curriculum offerings seem to have in-depth possibilities for teacher training--(1) community study through seminars and (2) student teacher participation in school-community relations. Addicott concurred with exposing student teachers to community problems.

Summary. Since school-community relations remain

contemptuous and fearful words to schoolmen, a plan or plans for implementation of the concept may be used to give direction and feelings of security. Two possibilities were explored: (1) a social construct and (2) teacher education. The application of a social construct for the implementation of change would give the administrator an instrument to follow so that negative consequences of unrecognizable variables could be minimized and ensuing problems could be anticipated and dealt with more conclusively. The use of teacher education, for change to more functional school-community relations, is a possibility that could be initiated in institutions of higher learning and could be continued at school sites as in-service training.

III. THE FUTURE OF SCHOOL-COMMUNITY RELATIONS

Thinking about the future is important, because it can provide a perspective on the present. However, what the future can provide in school-community relations is quite speculative because, at this time, schoolmen seem unwilling to commit themselves.

A few educators have dared guess what the future will bring. With their educated guesses the degree of accuracy, in prediction, is contingent on empirical rather than experimental data. These educators, aside from using empirical data to draw their conclusions, seem to be dreamers. They speak in terms of "what the future should be," relative to school-community relations, while, perhaps, they should speak in terms of "what the community will allow the schools

to be." After all, the issue is political in nature and schools exist for the community.

The former President of the United States, Lyndon B. Johnson, spoke at a meeting of the American Association of School Administrators in Atlantic City, New Jersey (Nation's Schools, 1966). He emphasized that:

> Tomorrow's school will be a school without walls--a school built of doors which open to the entire community. Tomorrow's school will reach out to the places that enrich the human spirit: to the museums, the theaters, the art galleries, to the parks and rivers and mountains. It will ally itself with the city, its busy streets and factories, its assembly lines and laboratories--so that the world of work does not seem an alien place for the student.
>
> Tomorrow's school will be the center of community life, for grown-ups as well as children: a shopping center of human services. It might have a community health clinic, a public library, a theater, and recreation facilities (Nation's Schools, 1966, p. 29).

In predicting the future of the relationship between the school and the community, Green (1969) used the more objective approach by establishing a case for perusal or detailed analysis. He asserts that:

> If we are to formulate judgments about the future, we must first be particularly sensitive to those social forces and social processes that are likely to extend into the future and to provide a kind of continuous thread with the past and present (Harvard Educational Review, 1969, p. 223).

In the above statement, Green seemed to imply that, by considering social forces and social processes, educators may be better able to distinguish between what might be expected to happen and what they might decide to make happen. In Johnson's (1966) position a broad view of social forces was opportune and yet his speech could be

questioned. Did he consider social forces in making the predictions in his speech? His poetic speech was most likely political.

Green stressed that five basic points should be mediated when considering the future of school-community relationships: (1) Specialization and Differentiation of Education (p. 226), an inquiry into how specialized schools will have to become in order to meet the needs of science and technology; (2) The Predominant Values (p. 232), an inquiry into whether the Nation will continue to pursue aggregate values or will turn to distributive values; (3) Conflict of Values: Credentialism and Pluralism (p. 243), an inquiry into the relevancy of diplomas and other school credentials as they relate to employment needs and the ability of individuals to pursue the values of their choosing; (4) Differential Rates of Change (p. 250), an inquiry into the speed of change and the implications of stress which could revive the demand for traditional education; and (5) Educational Technology (p. 251), an inquiry into the persistent lag which tends to exist between industrial and science technologies and educational technology.

Rempson (1966) argued that the American majority group will pursue aggregate values and that minorities will continue to be educated to become a part of the majority group as long as whites control the schools. This point was outlined by Green and is expressed above. Further, as implied in <u>One Year Later</u> (1969), Rempson expressed convincingly, that ethnically, a separate society is at hand. For this reason he proposed that minority communities

seek control of their schools. The purpose would be to strive for academic excellence through separate but equal education. He further emphasized that the minority community must work closely with schools in school-community relations to make the segregated system work.

Trump (1969) did not stress the importance of considering credentials awarded by educational institutions as does Green. His ideas about school-community relations were similar to those expressed by Johnson and yet his argument is more convincing as he builds a jigsaw of future education in Images of the Future (1969). He expressed that:

> Large numbers of adults will be used as part-time instructors and teaching assistants. Community resources will be utilized more frequently by students. Moreover, education will be a continuous process as graduation becomes less important because of adult education programs and closer integration of secondary school and college or employment. This does not imply any lowering of standards on the part of organized education, but actually quite the opposite. Professional teachers and counselors will help students decide whether they will benefit most from full-time study in secondary school or college, from full-time employment, or from some division of their time between study and work.
>
> This integration of school and community will bring about a new type of school-community relations. It will be difficult to tell where the school ends and the community begins because the two will be so completely interwoven (Images of the Future, 1969).

Summary. In discussing the future of school-community relations, the major forces shaping the two institutions must be considered--the polity of educational institutions and the persistence of community power. Schools probably will not change

because it is "the proper thing to do." If change is to take place, it will most likely be forced by the community. The larger American community will pursue aggregate values or values of the majority community. Emphasizing specialization in science and technology, which seems to be the trend, will probably endure. This insures stability of the Gross National Product. On the other hand, minority communities may continue to strive for differentiated values or emphasis on the worth of the individual.

With the constant state of unrest between the majority and the minority communities, the present state of school-community relations will probably exist far into the future. The polity of educational institutions will be challenged and adjustments will be made, but schoolmen will remain insensitive and will do pretty much as they please.

Before a more critical appraisal can be made of the future of school-community relations, much experimental research needs to be done in the area.

IV. CONCLUSIONS

The major conclusions of this study were summarized as follows:

1. The majority of school administrators were not willing to implement functional school-community relations programs.
2. School-community relations should focus on a two-way involvement.
3. Minority groups and federal programs have been the catalysts in the movement towards more functional school-community relations.
4. Where used, community advisory councils, community schools

and community aides have proven to be effective in creating stronger ties between the schools and the community.

5. There was a direct relationship between parent involvement and student success.
6. Two instruments which may be used to implement change were a social construct and teacher education.
7. Evidence was inconclusive as to whether school-community relations will make a noteworthy change in education in the near future.

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